Net heterotrophy and carbonate dissolution in two subtropical seagrass meadows

Bryce R Van Dam1,2, Christian Lopes2, Christopher L Osburn3, James W Fourquarean2

1Institute of Coastal Research, Helmholtz-Zentrum Geesthacht (HZG), Geesthacht, 21502, Germany
2Dept of Biological Sciences and Center for Coastal Oceans Research, Florida International University, 11200 SW 8th St, Miami FL 33199, USA
3Dept of Marine, Earth, and Atmospheric Sciences, North Carolina State University, 2800 Faucette Drive, Raleigh, North Carolina 27695, USA

Correspondence to: Bryce R Van Dam (vandam.bryce@gmail.com)

Abstract. The net ecosystem productivity (NEP) of two contrasting seagrass meadows within one of the largest seagrass ecosystems in the world, Florida Bay, was assessed using direct measurements over consecutive diel cycles. We report significant differences between NEP determined by dissolved inorganic carbon (NEP_DIC) and by dissolved oxygen (NEP_DO), likely driven by differences in air-water gas exchange and contrasting responses to variations in light intensity. In this first direct determination of NEP_DIC in seagrasses, we found that both seagrass ecosystems were net heterotrophic, on average, despite large differences in seagrass net aboveground primary productivity. Net ecosystem calcification (NEC) was also negative, indicating that both sites were net dissolving of carbonate minerals. We suggest that a combination of carbonate dissolution and respiration in sediments exceeded seagrass primary production and calcification, supporting our negative NEP and NEC measurements. Furthermore, a simple budget analysis indicates that these two seagrass meadows have contrasting impacts on pH buffering of adjacent systems, due to variations in the TA:DIC export ratio. The results of this study highlight the need for better temporal resolution, as well as accurate carbonate chemistry accounting in future seagrass metabolism studies.

1 Introduction

Seagrass ecosystems are often net autotrophic, producing more organic matter than they consume (Duarte et al, 2005; Barrón et al., 2006; Duarte et al, 2010; Unsworth et al., 2012; Long et al., 2015a; Ganguly et al., 2017; Perez et al., 2018). In terrestrial ecosystems, CO₂ uptake by photoautotrophs necessarily leads to an exchange of carbon from the atmosphere to the biosphere. However, such a net uptake of CO₂ by submerged seagrasses is attenuated as carbon produced or consumed by net ecosystem productivity (NEP) interacts with the carbonate buffering system and the processes of calcification and carbonate dissolution in the water and submerged sediments. The impact of seagrass carbonate chemistry on measurements of NEP is further obscured by physical processes at the air-water interface, which may cause temporal lags between NEP and air-water CO₂ exchange.
Calcification is an important process in many tropical and subtropical seagrass ecosystems (Mazarrasa et al. 2015) and has the net effect of consuming total alkalinity (TA) and generating CO₂. Florida Bay is a well-studied seagrass-dominated ecosystem and is assumed to be net calcifying given the vast autochthonous sedimentary deposits of CaCO₃ that have accumulated in the bay in the last three millennia (Stockman et al., 1967; Bosence et al., 1985). While much of this CaCO₃ was produced by other photoautotrophic or non-photoautotrophic calcifiers (Frankovich and Zieman 1994), it is likely that some unknown fraction was also derived from calcification driven directly by the seagrasses (Enríquez et al., 2014). Existing measurements from Florida Bay show that net ecosystem calcification (NEC) can vary from positive to negative over diel cycles (Turk et al., 2015), and across gradients of seagrass productivity and substrate type (Yates and Halley 2006). The relative magnitudes of NEC and NEP in the context of the overall seagrass ecosystem carbon budget is unclear, and it is still uncertain which component of the ecosystem dominates net calcification (seagrasses, benthic invertebrates, macroalgae, etc.). Early assessments of seagrass NEC in Florida Bay relied on species-specific calcification rates that were up-scaled to the community or ecosystem level. These studies indicate that epiphytic calcification can dominate NEC (Frankovich and Zieman 1994), and that the physical transport of carbonate mud within the bay is likely significant (Bosence 1989). The physical transport of carbonate mud is important because it can allow CaCO₃ formation and destruction to become spatially decoupled, such that regions of net dissolution may exist within the larger context of a net calcifying Florida Bay. More recently, results from in-situ chambers have indicated that seagrass primary production can dominate short-term carbonate chemistry dynamics (Hendriks et al., 2014; Turk et al., 2015; Camp et al., 2016).

This biological CO₂ addition or removal causes non-linear changes in the marine carbonate system, further challenging direct measurements of seagrass ecosystem NEP. Hence, prior assessments of seagrass NEP were often made using dissolved oxygen production (DO) as a proxy for CO₂ fixation, necessitating the assumption of a photosynthetic quotient (PQ) relating CO₂ fixation to DO production. The assumption of a PQ value is made problematic by the carbonate system reactions discussed earlier, which affect CO₂ but not DO. While is often assumed that PQ is approximately 1 (e.g., Duarte et al., 2010), prior measurements of ΔCO₂/ΔDO in seagrass ecosystems show a wide range of values, from 0.3 to 6.8 (Ziegler and Benner 1998; Barrón et al., 2006; Turk et al., 2015). As a result, potential exists for a general disagreement between NEP assessed using measurements of carbon, and those using its O₂ proxy (NEPDO). Hence, we identify a need for simultaneous measurements of pH, O₂, pCO₂, TA and dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC) when assessing seagrass ecosystem NEP and NEC, which may explain the divergence between CO₂- and O₂-based methods.

In addition to the importance of primary production in seagrass beds as a source of energy to fuel coastal ecosystems, the net uptake of CO₂ from the overlying water could have other important impacts of the seascapes in which the seagrasses occur. High primary production drives large diel variations in pH within seagrasses meadows (e.g. Hendriks et al., 2014; Turk et al., 2015; Camp et al., 2016; Challener et al., 2016), and it has been suggested that seagrass NEP may partially buffer coastal ocean acidification (OA) by consuming CO₂, thereby acting as refugia for calcifying organisms (Manzanello et al., 2012; Unsworth et al., 2012; Hendriks et al., 2014; Koweek et al., 2018; Pacella et al., 2018). They may also locally buffer OA by attenuating mangrove-derived lateral carbon fluxes (Buillon et al 2007). However, it remains unclear how NEP and NEC might
interactively affect carbonate system buffering in regions where primary producer biomass and NEP are limited by the availability of nutrients, like in the severely phosphorus-limited regions of Florida Bay (Fourqurean et al. 1992).

Prior studies of NEP$_{DO}$ in Florida Bay have suggested net autotrophy (Long et al., 2015a), yet others were unable to infer long-term NEP$_{DO}$ balance (Turk et al., 2015). Both of these estimates of NEP$_{DO}$ necessarily ignore any anaerobic catabolic biogeochemical processes that may cause NEP$_{DIC}$ to decrease, but do not affect NEP$_{DO}$. Rates of denitrification (Eyre and Ferguson 2002) and sulfate reduction (Smith et al., 2004, Ruiz-Halpern et al., 2008) can be significant in seagrass soils, although rates may depend on specific seagrass morphology and physiological traits (Holmer et al., 2001). Additionally, despite the inferred net ecosystem autotrophy of seagrasses, pCO$_2$ is often found above (Millero et al., 2001) or near (Yates et al., 2007) equilibrium with the atmosphere throughout most of Florida Bay, suggesting the role of NEC or anaerobic catabolic processes in generating excess CO$_2$.

In this study, we describe our direct measurements of NEP$_{DIC}$, NEP$_{DO}$, and NEC in two Florida Bay seagrass sites. We investigate variations in NEP and NEC across a seagrass productivity gradient, discuss potential differences between NEP$_{DIC}$ and NEP$_{DO}$, and suggest potential drivers of NEP and NEC. We then assess the capacity of these two sites to potentially buffer adjacent ecosystems, and their potential impacts on coastal ocean acidification.

2 Methods

2.1 Study Site

This study took place in one of the largest seagrass ecosystems in the world, Florida Bay (Figure 1), where we occupied two nearby sites which experience similar hydrologic and climatologic conditions yet differ substantially in community composition and productivity (Table S1). The choice of these sites allowed us to discern the effects of seagrass community structure and productivity on NEP and NEC that are independent of environmental setting. Both sites were dominated by the seagrass Thalassia testudinum in a phosphorus limited region (Fourqurean et al., 1992), have similar water depths (~2m), and were approximately 0.5 - 1 km from land. However, these sites differed in important factors like seagrass abundance and aboveground net primary productivity, nutrient content, morphology, as well as sediment depth, soil carbon (organic and inorganic), soil nutrient content, and grain size (Table S1). The potential for submarine groundwater discharge at these locations is low (Corbett et al., 1999). In addition to the two primary study sites, we collected time series data of DO and pH for an additional four Florida Coastal Everglades Long Term Ecological Research (FCE-LTER) sites in an effort to test whether the relationship between NEP$_{DO}$ and NEP$_{DIC}$ observed in this study can be extended over larger areas of Florida Bay.
5 2.2 Sampling Campaigns

We quantified NEP\textsubscript{DO}, NEP\textsubscript{DIC}, and NEC at our high density (HD) and low density (LD) sites by measuring diel excursions in DO, DIC and TA, and applying corrections to account for factors like air-water gas exchange and variations in water depth and light intensity. This is essentially a modification of the ‘free-water’ approach to assessing NEP (Nixon et al., 1976; Odum and Hoskin 1958), where the total inventory of DIC or O\textsubscript{2} is monitored over time. A benefit of this approach over traditional chamber-based metabolism methods is that the container effect is avoided, which is known to result in under-estimations of benthic respiration, due to a dampening of turbulent sediment-water exchange (Hopkinson and Smith, 2007). A weakness, however, is the reliance on modelled air-water gas exchange, which is subject to a high degree of uncertainty (Upstill-Goddard 2006). During two sampling campaigns in late 2018 (Oct. 28 - Nov. 01, and Nov. 25 – Nov. 29), measurements were made over consecutive diel cycles for a total of 8 days.

Samples were taken 3 times per day during the first campaign (dawn, noon, and dusk), and 4 times per day during the second campaign (dawn, late morning, early afternoon, and dusk). During the first sampling campaign, water samples were collected for the analysis of stable isotopic composition of DIC (\(\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}\)), in an effort to constrain potential DIC sources. We applied Keeling plots to our isotopic data, where \(1/n\text{DIC}\) is plotted against \(\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}\). In this approach, the y-intercept (as \(1/n\text{DIC}\) approaches 0) indicates the \(\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}\) value as \(n\text{DIC}\) approaches infinite concentration (e.g., as \(1/n\text{DIC}\) approaches 0) and can be interpreted as an indicator of the \(\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}\) of the source of the DIC (Karlsson et al., 2007).
2.3 Discrete Measurements

At our primary study sites, water samples for total alkalinity (TA) and dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC) were collected with pre-rinsed borosilicate bottles at a depth of approximately 0.2 m. TA and DIC samples were preserved with a saturated solution of HgCl\(_2\) and stored on ice until analysis (Dickson et al., 2007). Samples for δ\(^{13}\)C\(_{\text{DIC}}\) were taken at the same depth, filtered to 0.45µm, and preserved with HgCl\(_2\). Calcite saturation state (Ω\(_{\text{calcite}}\)) was calculated in CO2Sys (Lewis and Wallace 1998) from measured TA, DIC, salinity and temperature, using the H\(_2\)CO\(_3\) dissociation constants of Mehrbach et al. (1973) refit by Dickson and Millero (1987).

2.4 Continuous Measurements

At each of our primary sites, we deployed a YSI EXO-2 water quality sonde which recorded water depth, sea surface temperature (SST, °C), sea surface salinity (SSS), and dissolved oxygen (DO (mg L\(^{-1}\) and % saturation)) at an interval of 15 minutes. In-situ pH was measured at each site with an ion-sensitive field effect transistor sensor (Seabird SeaFET) at an interval of 5 minutes, with an initial accuracy of ± 0.05 pH on the Total scale. In order to assess the sensitivity of NEP and NEC to light availability, we recorded photosynthetically active radiation at the seagrass canopy (PAR; µEinstein m\(^{-2}\) s\(^{-1}\) [µE m\(^{-2}\) s\(^{-1}\)]) with a submerged Seabird ECO-PAR sensor equipped with an automatic wiper for the optics. We also deployed Lowell tilt current meters (TCMs) at both of our primary sites to assess lateral transfer of water through the site, but the observed current speeds were below the minimum detectable speed for these instruments (< ~ 2 cm s\(^{-1}\)).

At the four FCE-LTER sites (Fig. 1), we measured DO and pH over a span of 4-7 days in September (BA, LM, and DK) and 8 days in December (SB), with an hourly sampling frequency using YSI EXO-2 sondes. These sites span broad gradients in phosphorus-limitation, seagrass productivity (Fourqurean et al. 1992), carbonate production (Yates and Halley 2006), DIC and TA concentrations (Millero et al., 2001), air-water CO\(_2\) exchange (Yates and Halley 2006; DuFore 2012). We used these pH and DO data to calculate temporal excursions in DO (ΔDO) and hydrogen ion concentration (Δ[H\(^{+}\)]) (mM hr\(^{-1}\)), which are proxies for NEPDO and NPEDIC respectively (Long et al., 2015b). Data from these FCE-LTER deployments was compared with data from the two primary sites to determine whether the results of this study were generalizable to the rest of Florida Bay.

2.5 Benthic Chamber Fluxes

During the second sampling campaign, benthic chambers were deployed continuously over bare sediment at each site to measure sediment-water fluxes of TA and DIC driven by sediment processes. At the beginning of the experiment, acrylic chambers (~2.5L) were flushed with site water and placed on the sediment. Chamber incubations ran for a total of 4 days. At intervals ranging from 8-20 hr, ~150 mL samples were taken from the chambers using a syringe, and the chambers were re-equilibrated with ambient site water. Fluxes were calculated based on the difference in concentration between the ambient water sample at the initial time of chamber placement, and the final concentration inside the chamber.
2.6 Sample Analysis

TA was analysed in triplicate 25 mL subsamples by automated Gran titration at a controlled temperature on an Apollo AS-ALK2, with an average precision (standard deviation of replicate measurements) of ±1.89 \( \mu \)mol kg\(^{-1}\) or 0.07% of the average measured TA. Samples for DIC were analysed by injecting 250 \( \mu \)L subsamples into an impinger filled with 10% HCl, converting all DIC to CO\(_2\), which was subsequently transferred with a pure N\(_2\) carrier gas to a LI-COR 6262 infrared gas analyser in integration mode. The average precision of this method was noticeably lower than that for TA, at ± 5.11 \( \mu \)mol kg\(^{-1}\) or 0.21%. Both TA and DIC measurements were converted to gravimetric units by multiplying the concentration (\( \mu \)M) by the calculated SSS and SST-derived seawater density using the Gibbs Seawater toolbox for Matlab (GSW; McDougall and Barker 2011) to derive units of \( \mu \)mol kg\(^{-1}\).

Samples for \( \delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}} \) were analysed on a Thermo Gas Bench coupled to a Thermo Delta V Isotope Ratio Mass Spectrometer and reported in delta (\( \delta \)) notation in units of per-mille (‰) relative to Vienna Pee Dee Belemnite. Precision for this measurement was ±0.4‰ based on replicate analyses of Certified Reference Material (Dickson et al. 2003).

2.7 NEP and NEC Calculations

NEC, NEP\(_{\text{DIC}}\), and NEP\(_{\text{DO}}\) were determined by integrating temporal excursions in salinity-normalized TA (\( n_{TA} \)) and DIC (\( n_{DIC} \)), and DO. We quantified the total TA or DIC inventory over time to determine NEC and NEP. First, NEC (mmol CaCO\(_3\) m\(^{-2}\) hr\(^{-1}\)) was estimated using the alkalinity anomaly technique, which assumes that variations in TA are affected only by CaCO\(_3\) precipitation and dissolution (1):

\[
\text{NEC} = -0.5 \times \frac{\Delta n_{TA}}{\Delta t} \times h \rho ,
\]

where \( \Delta n_{TA} \) was the difference in \( n_{TA} \) (\( n_{TA} = \text{TA} \times \text{SSS}_{\text{Average}} / \text{SSS} \)), \( h \) the water depth, and \( \rho \) the seawater density. The -0.5 scalar was required because 2 moles of TA are required to form one mole of CaCO\(_3\) production. Salinity normalized DIC (\( \Delta n_{DIC} \)) was calculated in the same manner as \( \Delta n_{TA} \). The temporal excursion in \( n_{TA} \) used for Eq. 1 was calculated between each sampling point shown in Fig. 2g and 2h, for a total of 28 individual measurements of NEC. SSS\(_{\text{Average}}\) was determined for each sampling campaign at each site. By convention, NEC is positive when TA consumption occurs and CaCO\(_3\) is inferred to have been precipitated. NEP\(_{\text{DO}}\) (eq 2; mmol O\(_2\) m\(^{-2}\) hr\(^{-1}\)) and NEP\(_{\text{DIC}}\) (eq 3; mmol C m\(^{-2}\) hr\(^{-1}\)) were calculated in a similar manner, but with additional corrections for air-water gas exchange and DIC consumption by NEC:

\[
\text{NEP}_{\text{DO}} = \frac{\Delta \text{DO}}{\Delta t} h \rho - \text{O}_2 \text{ Flux} ,
\]

\[
\text{NEP}_{\text{DIC}} = \frac{\Delta n_{DIC}}{\Delta t} h \rho - \text{NEC} - \text{CO}_2 \text{ Flux} ,
\]
where $O_2$ and $CO_2$ fluxes (eq 4 and 5) were estimated with a bulk-transfer approach using two different formulations for the gas transfer velocity ($k_{600}$). These $k_{600}$ parameterizations were intended to represent upper (Raymond and Cole (2001)) and lower (Ho et al., 2006) bounds for gas exchange, respectively. Wind data used to derive the $k_{600}$ were taken from the NOAA meteorological station at Islamorada (DW1872; Fig 1) and normalized to a height of 10m above the sea surface under neutral drag conditions (Large and Pond 1981).

\[
O_2 \text{ Flux} = k_{600} * Sc * (O_2 (water) - O_2 (air)),
\]

\[
CO_2 \text{ Flux} = k_{600} * Sc * K * (pCO_2 (water) - pCO_2 (air)),
\]

where $pCO_2 (water)$ was the partial pressure of $CO_2$ (µatm), and $O_2$ was the measured DO concentration (mg L$^{-1}$). $pCO_2 (water)$ was calculated from measured TA and DIC using CO2SYS as above. Atmospheric $pCO_2$ ($pCO_2 (air)$) was taken from the nearby Cheeca Rocks Mooring buoy operated by NOAA (Fig 1), while $O_2 (air)$ was calculated from the measured DO (%) as . The gas solubility ($K$) and Schmidt numbers ($Sc$) were calculated from in-situ SSS and SST (Wanninkhof 1992; Weiss 1974). No attempt was made to refine NEC by accounting for the TA produced by ecosystem productivity, but preliminary calculations assuming TA increases with DIC consumption at a ratio of 17/106 (Middelburg 2019) indicated that this TA production was small compared to total NEC.

### 3. Results

#### 3. Physico-chemical conditions

Variations in SSS were generally less than 1 over each deployment period at both sites, indicating that lateral mixing, evaporation, precipitation, and fresh groundwater inputs were likely minor during the study period (Fig 2c,d). SST ranged from 18.5 to 27.0 across both sampling campaigns, and was very similar between sites (Fig. 2c,d). SSS was also stable, between 33.15 and 34.63 at the high-density site, and 31.45 to 34.67 at the low-density site. Diurnal variations in PAR coincided with those in SST, as is typical for sun-lit shallow water (Fig 2a). Likewise, both DO and pH exhibited typical diel excursions. Peak DO saturation of 115 (High density) and 135% (Low density) occurred in the late afternoon, coinciding with maximum pH of approximately 8.05 (High density) and 8.35 (Low density) respectively. Average pH was 8.10 ± 0.06 at the high-density site, compared with 8.17 ± 0.06 at the low-density site. Calculated $pCO_2 (water)$ at the high-density site (538.8 ± 123.5 µatm) was generally greater than atmospheric equilibrium, while average $pCO_2 (water)$ was less than $pCO_2 (air)$ at the low-density site (390.3 ± 129.4) (Table S1). Calculated CO$_2$ flux was generally positive (from the water to the atmosphere) and small in magnitude, between 0.13 ± 0.62 and 0.38 ± 0.20 mmol C m$^{-2}$ hr$^{-1}$ at the high-density site (RC01 and Ho06 respectively), and 0.20 ± 0.40 and 0.067 ± 0.35 mmol C m$^{-2}$ hr$^{-1}$ the low-density site (Table S1). A paired t-test found a significant difference between CO$_2$ fluxes derived using the RC01 and Ho06 $k_{600}$ parameterizations. However, this difference was small in magnitude compared
to NEP and NEC, so for the sake of simplicity, we only present results using the Ho06 parameterization in the main text of this manuscript. Results considering both parameterizations are given in the supporting information.

Between the first and second sampling campaigns, average mid-day PAR (from 10:00 to 14:00) reaching the benthos at the low-density site fell by approximately 38%, from 916 ± 332 µE m$^{-2}$ s$^{-1}$ during the first sampling campaign to 567 ± 219 µE m$^{-2}$ s$^{-1}$ for the second sampling campaign. Similarly, average mid-day PAR at the high-density site fell by ~31%, from 627 ± 259 µE m$^{-2}$ s$^{-1}$ during the first sampling campaign, to 432 ± 211 µE m$^{-2}$ s$^{-1}$ for the second sampling campaign. After the passage of a large cold front and associated high wind speed on 11/28, SST fell by more than 5 °C. At the initial SSS, DIC, and TA,

Figure 2. Time-series of a-b) PAR (µE m$^{-2}$ s$^{-1}$) and $U_{10}$ (m s$^{-1}$), c-d) SST and SSS, e-f) DO saturation (%), pH, and g-h) $n$DIC and $n$TA (µmol kg$^{-1}$). For plots b-c, the solid lines represent the high-density site, dashed lines are the low-density site.
the thermodynamic effect of this cooling was a nearly 0.1 increase in pH (CO2Sys), which was on the order of the typical diel range (Fig 2e). While this rapid pH increase (independent of DO%) was evident at the low-density site, no such change occurred at the high-density site (Fig 2f), indicating that biological factors outweighed the thermodynamic effect on pH there.

Across the study period, nTA at the high-density site was always greater than nTA at the low-density site, and nTA was generally higher than nDIC at both sites. Diel cycles were evident in both nDIC and nTA, coinciding with typical variations in net ecosystem production (consuming nDIC), calcification (consuming nTA). The average slope of nTA to nDIC was 0.64 and 0.41 for high- and low-density sites respectively (Fig 3), indicating that variations in TA and DIC were likely driven by a combination of ecosystem metabolism (expected slope of ~0), calcification (slope of 2), as well as SO42- reduction (slope of 1) and denitrification (slope of 0.8), similar to other Florida seagrasses (Camp et al., 2016; Challener et al., 2016).

![Graph showing scatter plot of nDIC and nTA for both high-density (blue) and low-density (orange) sites, and associated slope (m) and correlation coefficient (R²) of the linear regression. The red reference line indicates the expected relationship if calcification is dominant, consuming 2 moles of TA for every mole of DIC consumed to form CaCO₃. The blue reference line shows the approximate relationship expected for aerobic respiration/productivity, which generates approximately 0.15 moles of TA for every mole of DIC respired.](image)

**Figure 3.** Scatter plot of nDIC and nTA for both high-density (blue) and low-density (orange) sites, and associated slope (m) and correlation coefficient (R²) of the linear regression. The red reference line indicates the expected relationship if calcification is dominant, consuming 2 moles of TA for every mole of DIC consumed to form CaCO₃. The blue reference line shows the approximate relationship expected for aerobic respiration/productivity, which generates approximately 0.15 moles of TA for every mole of DIC respired.

### 3.2 NEP and NEC

At both sites, calculated NEPDO and NEPDIC followed a clear diel pattern, increasing between sunrise and early afternoon, and decreasing through sunset (Fig. 4). Night-time NEPDO and NEPDIC was nearly always negative (heterotrophic), while daytime values were larger and more variable, often exceeding ~15-20 mmol C m⁻² h⁻¹ in the late morning. Individual measurements of NEPDIC for the low-density site (-14.5 to 29.2 mmol C m⁻² h⁻¹) and high-density site (-36.2 to 21.4 mmol C m⁻² h⁻¹) were within the range of some previous studies, including NEPDO from of Turk et al. 2015 (−6.2 ± 1.0 to 12.3 ± 1.0...
mmol O$_2$ m$^{-2}$ h$^{-1}$), Perez et al. 2018 (~23.8 mmol O$_2$ m$^{-2}$ h$^{-1}$) and Long et al. 2015a (0.45-1.46 mmol O$_2$ m$^{-2}$ h$^{-1}$). While NEC was also strongly negative (dissolving) at night, it was highly variable during the day, with no clear trend between sunrise and sunset (Fig 4). It is important to note that this approach does not account for any TA production by net SO$_4^{2-}$ reduction and denitrification, and any such TA inputs may bias these estimates of NEC. However, our NEC estimates are at least an order of magnitude larger than typical published measurements of seagrass SO$_4^{2-}$ reduction (Holmer et al., 2003; Brodersen et al., 2019) and denitrification (Welsh et al., 2001) rates, suggesting that our NEC determinations were indeed largely driven by CaCO$_3$ precipitation and dissolution.

Figure 4. NEC (blue), NEP$_{DIC}$ (black) and NEP$_{DO}$ (red) plotted as a function of hour for the high-density site (a,c) and low-density site (b,d), for sampling campaign 1(a,c) and 2 (b,d). The x-axis represents the midpoint time for each NEP or NEC calculation period.

When discrete NEP and NEC rates were integrated over cumulative day and night hours, diel trends became more recognizable (Fig. 5a-b). Cumulative NEP$_{DIC}$ and NEP$_{DO}$ values were positive during the day (net autotrophic) and negative (net heterotrophic) at night for both sites. There was a small difference in NEP$_{DIC}$ calculated using RC01 and Ho06 k$_{600}$ parameterizations (paired t-test, α=0.05, 0.13 ± 0.07 mmol m$^{-2}$ h$^{-1}$). However, this difference was small for NEP$_{DIC}$ and non-existent for NEP$_{DO}$ (Figure S1), so we simply present the NEP$_{DO}$ and NEP$_{DIC}$ values derived using the Ho06 parameterization alone. Average NEC was less than NEP$_{DIC}$, such that the NEC:NEP$_{DIC}$ ratio was 0.54 and 0.31 for the high- and low-density sites respectively, well within the range of tropical seagrass ecosystems globally (Camp et al., 2016) and locally (Turk et al., 2015). Although NEP$_{DIC}$ and NEP$_{DO}$ agreed in direction, NEP$_{DO}$ was significantly greater in magnitude than NEP$_{DIC}$ for all
time periods except at night for the low-density site (Fig 5a). Night-time NEC was not significantly different from zero because of the high variability in individual measurements (Fig 4). NEC was more consistently negative (net dissolving) at night (Fig. 4), causing cumulative NEC to be less than zero (Fig. 5). Night-time dissolution was greater at the high-density site than the low-density site.

**Figure 5.** Average NEC, NEP_{DIC}, and NEP_{DO} (a) separated by day and night-time periods, and (b) expressed as a total for the entire study period. NEP values are shown for k_{600} of Ho et al., 2006.

NEP_{DIC} and NEC were negative (heterotrophic and dissolving) at the both sites over the entire study period (Fig 5b). In contrast, NEP_{DO} was small and positive at the low-density site, and small but negative at the high-density site. This difference between NEP_{DO} and NEP_{DIC} was significant when values were split by day and night (Fig. 5a). In fact, the linear relationship between NEP_{DO} and NEP_{DIC} in this study was not significantly different from 0 for the high-density site (p=0.095; r^2=0.11) and was significant but weak (p=0.001; R^2=0.35) for the low-density seagrass site (Fig 6d). While NEP_{DO} and NEP_{DIC} agreed in sign at night (dark blue points in Fig 6d), there was no such relationship for daytime NEP_{DO} and NEP_{DIC}. Correlations between net ecosystem processes and PAR were not strong (R^2<0.5) for NEP_{DIC} and NEP_{DO} and were very weak (R^2<0.05) for NEC (Fig. 6a-c).
Figure 6. Scatter plots of (a) NEP<sub>DO</sub> vs PAR, NEP<sub>DIC</sub>, and NEC vs PAR (b-c), and NEP<sub>DO</sub> vs NEP<sub>DIC</sub> (d). Points are colored by the average hour for the respective time period over which NEP or NEC was calculated. The arrows in (a) are intended to highlight the hysteretic pattern between PAR and NEP<sub>DO</sub>.

To address whether this disconnect between NEP<sub>DO</sub> and NEP<sub>DIC</sub> exists outside of the two primary sites (Fig. 7: HD and LD sites), we assembled pH and DO data from 4 additional sites across Florida Bay (Fig. 7: SB, BA, DK, and LM). Even though Δ[H<sup>+</sup>] and ΔDO were correlated at our primary sites and one of the four LTER sites (LM), correlations were poor (R<sup>2</sup> < 0.25) at the remaining LTER sites. The LM site is heavily influenced by terrestrial inputs from the coastal Everglades and fringing mangroves, which likely contributed to the significant relationship between Δ[H<sup>+</sup>] and ΔDO there (R<sup>2</sup> = 0.48).
Figure 7. Map showing $\Delta[H+]$ vs $\Delta$DO relationship for sites associated with LTER (SB, BA, DK, LM) and the present study (high-density [HD] and low-density [LD]). Generalized pattern in seagrass primary productivity (PPR), phosphorus concentration ([P]), and TA are drawn above for reference. All LTER sites failed to meet the assumptions for a test of slope significance (gvlma package in R), so we simply report the $R^2$.

3.3 $\delta^{13}$C$_{\text{DIC}}$ and benthic flux of TA and DIC

While both sites were net dissolving (-NEC) over the study period (Fig. 5), the calculated calcite saturation state ($\Omega_{\text{calcite}}$, CO2Sys) was relatively high, at 5.83 ± 0.84 and 6.23 ± 1.15 at the high- and low-density sites, respectively (Table S1), indicating that dissolution of carbonates in the sediments was contributing to water column DIC. The uncertainty of this $\Omega_{\text{calcite}}$ calculation was ± 0.30, or approximately 5% of the average value. The ‘Keeling plot’ indicated source $\delta^{13}$C$_{\text{DIC}}$ values were -6.9 ± 3.7 and -8.8 ± 6.8 ‰ (95% confidence interval) for the high- and low-density sites respectively (Fig. 8).
Figure 8. ‘Keeling plot’ of $1/[n_{\text{DIC}}]$ versus $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$, suggesting potential end-member isotopic values. These y-intercept $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$ values were -6.9 ± 3.7 and -8.8 ± 6.8‰ (95% confidence interval) for the high- and low-density sites respectively. The inset figure is zoomed to the extent of collected data, while the large figure is scaled to demonstrate the extrapolation required in order to extend the data to the y-intercept.

Benthic chamber flux experiments (over bare sediment) during the second sampling campaign yielded average benthic DIC fluxes of 0.76 ± 0.7 and 1.26 ± 0.8 mmol m$^{-2}$ h$^{-1}$ at the low- and high-density sites, respectively. These benthic DIC fluxes could explain 109% (0.76/0.7 = 1.09) of the average NEP$_{\text{DIC}}$ at the low-density site, and 79% (1.26/1.6 = 0.79) at the high-density site. Benthic TA fluxes were 0.24 ± 0.16 mmol m$^{-2}$ h$^{-1}$ at the low-density site but were highly variable and not significantly different from zero at the high-density site (0.16 ± 0.4 mmol m$^{-2}$ h$^{-1}$). Benthic TA flux could explain 120% (0.24/0.2 = 1.2) of cumulative NEC at the low-density site, but only 18% (0.16/0.9 = 0.18) at the high-density site. Given the expectation that SO$_4^{2-}$ reduction and denitrification are generally higher at greater seagrass density and productivity, the relatively high benthic TA fluxes at the low-density site indicate that our measurements of NEC were largely driven by CaCO$_3$ production and dissolution rather than TA production due to sediment redox processes.

4. Discussion

4.1 Drivers of NEP

Individual NEP$_{\text{DIC}}$ measurements were variable and within the range of prior studies in Florida Bay (Long et al. 2015a; Turk et al. 2015; Perez et al. 2018), but over the entire study period, cumulative NEP$_{\text{DIC}}$ was negative at both sites (Fig. 5b), indicating that heterotrophic conditions dominated in both seagrass meadows during these two sampling campaigns. CO$_2$...
fluxes were positive at both sites, indicating a net release of CO₂ from the water to the atmosphere (Table S1). Seagrass aboveground primary productivity rates were between 1.5-2 µmol C m⁻² h⁻¹ at both sites (Table S1), approximately 3 orders of magnitude lower, and opposite in sign, than the measured NEPDIC. This large difference provides further evidence that seagrass aboveground primary productivity is only a component of net ecosystem productivity, which was likely dominated by sediment processes during our experiments. We found a clear disagreement between daytime NEPDO and NEPDIC, such that the linear relationship between NEPDO and NEPDIC was not significantly different from 0 for the high-density site (p=0.095; R²=0.11) and was significant but very weak (p=0.001; R²=0.35) for the low-density site (Fig 6d). Such a disagreement between NEPDO and NEPDIC has been observed recently in coral ecosystems (Perez et al., 2018). This discrepancy between NEPDO and NEPDIC may be related to the thermodynamics of CO₂ and O₂ dissolution, as the solubility of O₂ is much less than that of CO₂ (Weiss 1970; 1974). Any O₂ produced or consumed by NEP will rapidly exchange with the atmosphere, while most of the CO₂ generated by NEP will enter the carbonate buffering system and persist as HCO₃⁻ or CO₃²⁻ ions, rather than exchangeable CO₂. The standard deviation of O₂ fluxes was much larger than that of CO₂ fluxes, in part due to this effect. Furthermore, as the total pool of O₂ in the water column is far less than the total pool of CO₂ (i.e. DIC), the determination of NEPDO is more sensitive to the parameterization of gas transfer than is NEPDIC. This is highlighted in Fig S1, where the difference between the two k₆₉₀ parameterizations is much larger for NEPDO than for NEPDIC.

Further explanations for this discrepancy between NEPDO and NEPDIC can be related to differing responses of DO and DIC to variations in light availability. When PAR was plotted against NEPDO, a clear pattern of hysteresis arose, with higher NEPDO values during the morning hours than the afternoon at the same PAR intensity (shown by the arrows in Fig. 6a). Such a hysteretic pattern indicates that the response of NEPDO to light is not uniform, and that photosynthetic efficiency may vary with factors such as nutrient availability, history of carbon acquisition (carbon concentrating mechanisms) or temperature. Such a hysteretic pattern has been observed between PAR and NEC, but not for NEP, for a coral reef (Cyronak et al., 2013). This has important implications for the modeling of carbon processing in seagrass meadows, which generally assume a time-invariant relationship between light and photosynthesis (Zimmerman et al., 2015; Koweek et al., 2018).

4.2 Drivers of NEC

We found no relationship between PAR and NEC at our study sites, indicating that light-driven calcification by photoautotrophs (algal epiphytes, calcifying macroalgae and seagrasses themselves) does not dominate NEC, or that carbonate dissolution driven by respiration in the sediments dominated NEC. However, it is possible that the use of carbon concentrating mechanisms could cause calcification by photoautotrophs to become decoupled from direct irradiance. While not listed in Table S1, we did observe a variety of bivalves and tube-building polychaetes that may have contributed to the high NEC at both sites. Furthermore, while Ωcalcite was always greater than 1, NEC was negative on average over the study period, indicating that the overall ecosystem was net dissolving. This co-occurrence of high Ωcalcite with overall net dissolving conditions (-NEC) can be reconciled by considering the seagrass ecosystem as a vertically de-coupled system, where positive NEC in the water...
column is more than balanced by carbonate dissolution in the sediments. Such a relationship has been observed or inferred in seagrasses elsewhere (Millero 2001; Burdige and Zimmerman 2002; Burdige et al., 2010).

Our ‘Keeling plot’ approach indicated potential end-member δ\(^{13}\)C\(_{DIC}\) values that lie between the δ\(^{13}\)C of seagrass organic matter (~ -8 to -10 [Fourquean et al., 2015; Röhr et al., 2018]) and sediment inorganic carbon (~0 ‰ [Deines 1980]), indicating that both sediment organic matter respiration and carbonate dissolution were sources of DIC. It should be noted that this approach involves the extension of measurements to a theoretical δ\(^{13}\)C\(_{DIC}\) value at infinite DIC concentration, involving a substantial extrapolation (Fig. 8). Furthermore, this isotopic analysis implicitly assumes a closed system, which clearly is not the case in Florida Bay.

From these lines of evidence, we infer that OC remineralization in sediments, combined with carbonate dissolution contributed to the net upward DIC and TA fluxes from the sediments, which appear to have driven the observed negative NEP (heterotrophy) and NEC (dissolution), respectively. Such net heterotrophy must be fuelled by C\(_{org}\) captured by the system, either from allochthonous sources or from autochthonous sources occurring at some time in the past. This study was conducted at two relatively deep-water sites during autumn with relatively low light levels and short days, so it is quite possible that there could be a different net annual signal when the bright summer months are included, highlighting the need for annually-resolved measurements. However, the results of our benthic flux experiments support the isotopic evidence for the role of sediment OM remineralization in NEP and NEC at these sites. Benthic DIC fluxes were 79 and 109% of average NEPDIC at the high- and low-density sites, respectively. Likewise, benthic TA flux was 18-120% of cumulative NEC. Together, these benthic flux measurements, along with isotopic evidence, supports the role of sediment biogeochemical cycling in the overall carbon budget at these sites. Prior studies have shown high rates of denitrification (Eyre and Ferguson 2002) and SO\(_4^{2-}\) reduction (Holmer et al., 2001; Smith et al., 2004) in seagrass soils, so it seems quite possible that these processes contributed to much of the inferred net ecosystem heterotrophy here. There is a clear need for more research exploring the linkages between sediment early diagenesis and water-column biogeochemistry over seagrasses. This is especially important, given the recent attention that seagrass systems have received lately, as potential ‘buffering’ mechanisms for coastal ocean acidification (Manzanello et al., 2012; Unsworth et al., 2012; Hendriks et al., 2014; Cyronak et al., 2018; Koweek et al., 2018; Pacella et al., 2018).

However, there is a geologic context for this observed negative NEC in the northeast region of Florida Bay. Florida Bay is geologically young, having formed during the retreat of the Holocene shoreline following the end of the last major glaciation approximately 4-5,000 years before present (Bosence et al., 1985). The sedimentary deposits that filled in this basin are dominated by calcareous mud formed by extensive Thalassia beds, and their associated epibionts and macroalgae (Bosence et al., 1985), and these autochthonous sources are sufficient to explain the observed sediment distributions (Stockman et al., 1967). Early work suggests that calcareous sediments in Florida Bay can be separated into distinct zones of calcareous sediment formation, migration, and destruction, the last of which extends across NE Florida Bay, where this study took place (Wanless and Tagett et al., 1989). A limited sediment supply of ~0.01 mm yr\(^{-1}\) in this ‘destructional’ zone, compared to the rate of sea level rise, results in the presence of a thin veneer of sediment on the bottoms of the basins and narrow, erosional mud banks (Stockman et al., 1967). Our primary sites were in this “destructional zone”, and our finding of negative NEC indicates that at
these sites (during the fall season), the “destructional” nature of this part of the bay may be partly explained by net carbonate dissolution. It is important to note the limited spatial and temporal scope of this study, and we caution that our findings of net negative NEP and NEC are likely not applicable to Florida Bay as a whole, or even to these sites across seasons. Indeed, prior studies have shown substantial seasonal and spatial variability in carbonate chemistry (Millero et al., 2001; Zhang and Fischer 2014) and seagrass primary productivity (Fourqurean et al., 2005).

Lastly, it is clear that sediments below seagrasses in Florida Bay have been accumulating autochthonous organic carbon (C$_{org}$) and carbonate sediments for over 3,000 years (Fourqurean et al. 2012b), suggesting that the ecosystem is producing more organic matter than it is consuming, and is storing more carbonates than it is dissolving. To reconcile our finding of net negative NEP and NEC with the knowledge that this system is a net producer of C$_{org}$ and CaCO$_3$, we must infer that NEP and NEC are not homogeneous throughout Florida Bay.

4.3 Regional Implications and Future Outlook

By combining our estimates of NEP, NEC and CO$_2$ flux, we can assemble a simple site-scale budget for DIC and TA (Fig. 9). At both sites, approximately 20% of the DIC generated by negative NEP was lost to the atmosphere as CO$_2$. We can infer that the remaining ~80% (or less, assuming some of the CO$_2$ produced by -NEP contributed to -NEC) of this metabolic DIC was likely exported to adjacent areas, which in this case are more seagrass meadows. The budgets for these two sites differ for TA, where the lateral export of TA can be estimated simply as: $T_{A\text{export}} = 2(NEC) + (NEP[17/106])$, assuming TA increases with NEP at a ratio of 17/106 (Middelburg 2019). As NEC and NEP both consume DIC in a 1:1 ratio, the export of DIC can be estimated simply as $DIC_{\text{export}} = -CO_2$ Flux + NEP + NEC. The inferred $T_{A\text{export}}$ was much higher at the high-density site (1.99 mmol m$^{-2}$ hr$^{-1}$), compared to the low-density site (0.56 mmol m$^{-2}$ hr$^{-1}$). Hence, the TA:DIC ratio of the export term was greater for the high-density site at 0.90, compared with 0.60 for the low-density site. This TA:DIC ratio is implicitly related to the buffering capacity of the marine carbonate system and governs the sensitivity of pH to changes in DIC (Egleston et al., 2010). Export of low TA:DIC water will cause the pH of receiving systems to be more sensitive to NEP, while export of higher TA:DIC would effectively buffer variations in pH. Prior studies have suggested that seagrass meadows may have a limited capacity to buffer sensitive downstream systems like coral reefs (Manzanello et al. 2012; Hendriks et al., 2014; Cyronak et al., 2018; Pacella et al., 2018), although a recent modeling analysis indicated that this buffering capacity may depend on site biogeochemical and physical properties (Koweek et al., 2018). Our results show that the net impact of our studied seagrass ecosystems on pH buffering (related to TA:DIC export ratio) can vary in magnitude between sites that are otherwise quite similar. More work is needed to assess whether TA:DIC varies seasonally with changes in NEP and NEC.

Variations in TA and DIC exports also affects the carbonate system buffering of adjacent systems, further complicating the relationship between NEP$_{DO}$ and NEP$_{DIC}$. In Fig. 7, we show that correlations between $\Delta[H^+]$ and $\Delta DO$ at the LTER sites were generally poor and suggested that this may be partially due to variations in TA supply from adjacent seagrass systems. This seems quite likely, given the phosphorus-driven spatial gradient in seagrass primary production in Florida Bay.
(Zieman et al., 1989; Fourqurean et al., 1992), and the realization that ecosystem production is linked with increased calcification (Frankovich and Zieman 1994; Enríquez and Schubert 2014; Perez et al., 2018). In addition, the mangroves that lie upstream of Florida Bay export water high in DIC and TA, and low in DO to Florida Bay (Ho et al., 2017), so that areas immediately affected by this runoff (like LTER site LM) will have a larger range in $\Delta[H^+]$ and $\Delta$DO. Likewise, we can infer that the relationship between NEP$_{DO}$ and NEP$_{DIC}$ is also altered by spatio-temporal variations in TA, although data are lacking in the present study to conclusively demonstrate this effect. Prior studies have shown that TA varies seasonally (Millero et al., 2001) and over diel cycles (present study; Yates et al., 2007) in response to fluctuations in calcification (Yates and Halley 2006) and salinity (net water balance), offering some explanation for the poor across-site relationship between $\Delta$DO and $\Delta[H^+]$. TA generated by calcite dissolution or anaerobic biogeochemical processes like denitrification and SO$_4^{2-}$ reduction likely play an important, yet currently unknown role. Anaerobic generation of TA through denitrification or SO$_4^{2-}$ reduction in seagrass soils is an additional source not quantified here but should be addressed in the future. However, we can conclude that the observed lack of relationship between $\Delta$DO and $\Delta[H^+]$ holds across the seagrass productivity gradient in Florida Bay, indicating that this discrepancy between NEP$_{DO}$ and NEP$_{DIC}$ may extend across broad regions of the subtropics. This may challenge the application of new in-situ approaches that rely on variations in pH and DO alone to infer rates of biogeochemical processes (e.g. Long et al., 2015b).

![Figure 9](image-url) **Figure 9.** Simple carbon budget for both (a) high- and (b) low-density sites, including inferred lateral DIC and TA export (mmol m$^{-2}$ h$^{-1}$). Values of NEP and CO$_2$ flux were averaged for RC01 and Ho06 k$_{600}$ parameterizations, from which DIC lateral export estimates were derived.

Our results also suggest that the role of seagrass carbon cycling in larger, regional or global carbon cycles, may be much more complex than originally thought. Modern estimates of carbon uptake by seagrass ecosystems are based largely on measurements of C$_{org}$ burial rates or changes in standing stock of C$_{org}$ (Duarte et al., 2005; Fourqurean et al., 2012a; 2012b). While these C$_{org}$ burial rates are valuable metrics, they do not consider the impact of seagrass NEP and NEC on air-water CO$_2$ exchange and lateral CO$_2$(water) and TA export, which are also important components of the seagrass ecosystem carbon budget.
Indeed, it has been suggested that the dissolution of allochthonous carbonates in seagrass soils is an unrecognized sink of atmospheric CO$_2$ that exports TA to the coastal Ocean on scales significant to global CO$_2$ budgets (Saderne et al 2019). If we are to more accurately constrain the role of seagrass ecosystems in the global carbon cycle, we must begin to consider the net ecosystem carbon balance (NECB), which is the residual carbon produced or consumed after all sources and sinks have been accounted for (Chapin et al., 2006). In aquatic systems, this will involve a precise measurement of the net ecosystem exchange (NEE) of CO$_2$ between the air and water. In the present study, we used a bulk-transfer equation (Eq 4 and 5) to estimate NEE, but new technologies such as eddy covariance and improved flux chambers mean that direct measurements of seagrass NEE are on the horizon. The combination of direct NEE measurements with rigorous assessments of NEP and NEC is one promising avenue through which NECB may be approached.

5. Conclusion

In this study, we present the first direct NEP$_{DIC}$ measurements in a representative seagrass meadow by combining rigorous carbonate system analysis with a diel sampling approach. With this new framework, we found negative NEP$_{DIC}$ and NEC at both sites, indicating that despite typical values of seagrass biomass and productivity (Table S1), both sites were net heterotrophic and net dissolving over the study period. Multiple lines of evidence point to sediment respiration and carbonate dissolution (Fig. 8) as drivers of negative NEP and NEC. While our isotopic and benthic flux measurements were coarse, they support the role of aerobic and anaerobic remineralization (denitrification and SO$_4$$^2-$ reduction [Holmer et al., 2001; Eyre and Ferguson 2002; Smith et al., 2004]) coupled with carbonate dissolution (Jensen et al 1998, Burdige and Zimmerman 2002, Jensen et al 2009) as under-recognized components of total ecosystem NEP and NEC. Further studies should refine our estimates of benthic DIC and TA fluxes from seagrass sediments (with benthic chambers [present study], underwater eddy covariance [Long et al., 2015b; Yamamoto et al., 2015], or pore-water modeling), and compare these values to other component fluxes of NEP (seagrass primary production, CO$_2$ flux, etc).

A key finding of this study was the divergence between NEP$_{DO}$ and NEP$_{DIC}$, which we attribute to the following factors 1) carbonate system buffering, which retains NEP-generated CO$_2$ in the water as DIC, 2) more rapid gas transfer, combined with a larger exchangeable pool for O$_2$ than for CO$_2$, and 3) a clear time-variant response of NEP$_{DO}$ to irradiance (Fig 6a). While DO-based approaches offer many advantages in cost and temporal coverage, we suggest that future studies should first constrain the underlying carbonate chemistry, and assess the relationship between NEP$_{DIC}$ and NEP$_{DO}$.

Lastly, we used a simple budget to show that these seagrass meadows had contrasting impacts on the pH buffering of downstream ecosystems. Export ratios of TA:DIC varied across both of our sites, indicating that systems downstream of the low-density site may experience less pH buffering of pH, relative to the high-density site, where TA:DIC was greater. Unfortunately, given the very limited sampling period of just 8 days, it is impossible to extend the results of this study to longer time scales. More research is needed to assess the role of seasonal to annual scale variability in NEP and NEC on coastal ocean acidification trends. The use of new techniques, such as eddy covariance and improved autonomous instruments for pH, pCO$_2$, and TA, should allow future studies to build on this work and fill in our understanding of carbonate chemistry dynamics over
longer, annual time scales. In particular, these new approaches should be targeted at constraining NEE (air-water CO₂ exchange), in conjunction with direct and rigorous measurements of NEP and NEC. The combination of these approaches will allow for the first direct assessments of seagrass NECB, a critical next step in the valuation of seagrasses in the context of the global carbon cycle.

5 Data Availability

All datasets generated during this project are published on the data sharing repository Figshare (https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.7707029.v1). Further requests for data or methods sharing can be directed towards the corresponding author.

Supplement

The supporting information related to this study will be published online.

Author Contributions

BRV designed the research methodology and formal analysis for this study, while field and lab work was carried out by BRV and CL. Isotopic analysis of DIC was conducted by CO. The original draft of this manuscript was prepared by BRV, while further review and editing was conducted by JF, CO, and CL. Funding for this study was acquired by JF.

15 Competing Interests

The authors declare no conflicts if interest

Acknowledgements

This work was supported by the US National Science Foundation through the Florida Coastal Everglades Long-Term Ecological Research program under Grants No. DEB-1237517 and DEB-1832229. We thank Sara Wilson, Roxane Bowden, Mary Zeller, and Mark Kershaw for assistance in the lab and field. We also appreciate the assistance of the National Parks Service, who provided housing and lab space for this study. This is contribution #[updated upon publication] from the Center for Coastal Oceans Research in the Institute of Water and Environment at Florida International University.

References


